

News

Synchrotron Uses

The geological and materials sciences have a number of common interests and interfaces, according to a report recently issued by the National Academy Press. Entitled *Fostering Increased Cooperation Between the Geological and Materials Sciences*, the report provides a relatively low-key comparison of areas of common ground between the two sciences; it identifies no major issues of disagreement and thus has no axes to grind. Instead, the report is a short, soft-sell discussion of the burgeoning revolutions taking place in the more applied sectors of the geological and condensed matter or solid-state sciences. The materials sciences are receiving a wealth of experience with highly complex mineralogical and geological materials and advances in the applications of analytical techniques that had been originated by solid-state scientists for the study of metals and single compounds. In turn, the earth sciences are receiving new techniques and theories from the material sciences.

According to the report, both fields of applied science need better lines of intercommunication to foster more effective interaction. An example of this need is noted in the report; it centers on the common requirement of both the geological and the material sciences for a higher intensity energy source than is now available to advance the analysis of condensed matter. Synchrotron radiation sources appear to be central in meeting this requirement.

It is noteworthy that in another study by the National Academy of Sciences, the so-called 'Lynch Report' of the Solid-State Sciences Committee (*Physics Today*, February 1983), it was concluded that, 'By 1985, ... demand for x-ray and UV (synchrotron) beams will exceed the additional supply that would be available if unused points on current machines were developed.' Synchrotron facilities at Stanford University, the University of Wisconsin, Cornell University, and at Brookhaven National Laboratory are being constructed or modified to meet the needs of new, exciting materials analysis research. Originally only a side advantage that was relatively unused in synchrotron facilities, the high intensity white radiation released as a secondary product in the acceleration of electrons has now taken precedence over the particle-physics experiments for which the facilities were constructed. Rather, special instrumentation is needed to exploit the 'free' white radiation, and new generations of synchrotrons are being planned for the purpose.

In older, 'first generation' synchrotrons the primary electron beam is held in a circular path by means of dipole magnets placed in precise locations along the accelerator ring. The intensity of the high-energy beam of radiation that is released as the electrons are accelerated around a circular path can be increased by several orders of magnitude by new concepts of magnetic-field insertion devices that are called 'wigglers' or 'undulators.' These devices have a large number of weak dipoles or a smaller number of strong dipoles. Depending on the design, high intensity beams of broad or narrow wavelength spectra can be created. A number of problems with these devices, such as overheating caused by the large energy densities, have yet to be solved. The insertion devices are mostly still in the design and construction stages, awaiting testing. Research areas noted in the Lynch Report are SEXAFS (surface X-ray absorption fine structure), X-ray diffraction and scattering, and photoemission spectroscopy. The sort of problems to be investigated with these ultra-high-intensity beams include the study of short-time (nanosecond) phenomena, two-dimensional structures, and surface physics. The relatively unexplored field of megabar high-pressure experiments may yield a wealth of new materials that are amenable to study by synchrotron radiation beams.

Of relevance to the renewed interest in the study of materials properties is the recent news of the new National Center for Advanced Materials (NCAM) proposed as a major new direction for the Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory in California. According to a report, the planned laboratory 'comes with a strong endorsement from White House science advisor George Kenworthy, and it is a centerpiece of the proposed 1984 budget for the Department of Energy (DOE) general sciences program' (*Nature*, February 10, 1983). In another recent report it is noted that, 'A synchrotron radiation light source is the centerpiece for the National Center for Advanced Materials at the Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory' (*Science*, February 18, 1983). The costs to DOE for NCAM will be a total of \$203.8 million, of which \$138.0 million would be for construction of facilities. The new, third-generation synchrotron will take 6 years to build, at a cost of \$84 million. As a subset, \$13.8 million is to be allocated to the Stanford University Synchrotron Radiation Laboratory to experiment with the problems of unusually intense X-ray beams.

The NCAM will include three laboratories,

one for Surface Science and Catalysis, one for Advanced Material Synthesis, and one for Advanced Device Concepts. Perhaps most interesting to the geology-materials science interface is the Advanced Materials Synthesis Laboratory in which theoretical and experimental studies will be done of phase transitions and materials at high pressures. Central to the three laboratories missions will be the next-generation synchrotron Advanced Light Source (ALS), which is to produce a beam brightness (energy density per unit area) some 10⁴ times greater than existing sources. According to the designers, 'The brightness of the synchrotron radiation from the ALS will not be entirely due to the use of insertion devices. Another important feature, reports *Science*, is the storing of a circulating electron beam (1.3 billion eV) with a very small emittance.' The new light source will overcome problems of beam stability inherent in the older accelerators by focusing to a stable point source.

The National Academy report of the Committee on Geological and Materials Sciences noted that the number of people working in geological materials was less, by one or two factors of ten, than the number working in the materials sciences. Federal agencies, it was noted, spent over \$1 billion on materials R&D in 1980. Geologists have had notable successes in the fields of extractive metallurgy and other materials sciences areas; according to the report, examples in which information has flowed to, rather than, as in so many other cases, from the materials sciences include phase equilibrium, isotope and trace element analysis, major element analysis by the electron microprobe, and high-pressure, high-temperature research.—PMB

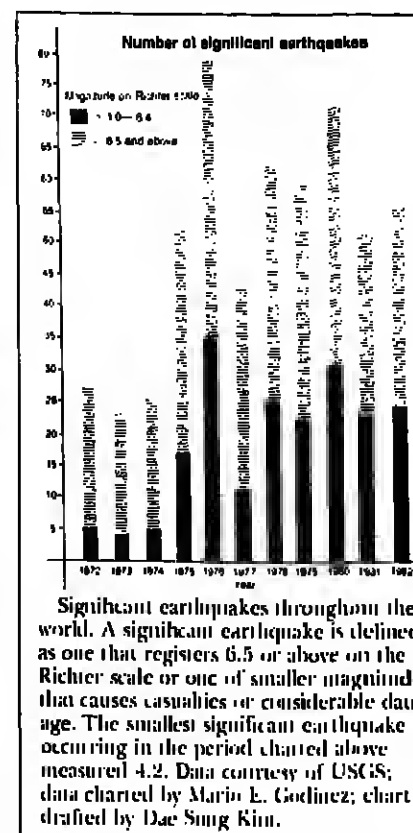
Earthquakes Up Worldwide in 1982

Fifty-six significant earthquakes were recorded in 1982, up from the 1981 tally of 51, according to a recent report from the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS). In addition, in the United States there were 33 more 'felt' earthquakes in 1982 than in 1981. The number of lives lost worldwide to earthquakes, however, dropped by one-third. A significant earthquake is defined as one that registers 6.5 or above on the Richter scale or one of smaller magnitude that causes casualties or considerable damage. Felt earthquakes are nondestructive quakes that are reported as being felt by people. The data are compiled by the USGS from 3,000 seismograph stations around the world.

In the United States in 1982 only one significant earthquake occurred, striking on January 25; this was the lowest number recorded since 1974, when none occurred. The 1982 event registered 6.5 and was centered in the Fox Islands in the Aleutians; there were no reports of casualties or damages.

The strongest earthquake of 1982, measured at 7.7, hit the Tonga Islands region of the South Pacific on December 19 without causing damage or casualties, according to Waverly Person, a geophysicist at the USGS National Earthquake Information Service. It was among a total of 10 major earthquakes (registering 7.0 to 7.9) recorded worldwide. For the second consecutive year no great earthquakes (registering 8.0 or more) occurred; the last such event was a magnitude 8.1 quake recorded on July 17, 1980, in the Santa Cruz Islands region of the South Pacific. The long-term average of earthquakes of magnitude 7.0 and over is 19 per year.

The most devastating earthquake of 1982 occurred in North Vietnam, located on the Arabian Peninsula. Registering a magnitude of 6.0, it killed 2,800 people, injured another 1,500, left more than 700,000 homeless, and destroyed or extensively damaged 300 villages. The second deadliest jolted the Hindu Kush region of Afghanistan with a magnitude 6.5. Reported deaths totalled 450, with many others injured. The zone of damage



Significant earthquakes throughout the world. A significant earthquake is defined as one that registers 6.5 or above on the Richter scale or one of smaller magnitude that causes casualties or considerable damage. The smallest significant earthquake occurring in the period charted above measured 4.2. Data courtesy of USGS; data charted by Martin K. Gollner; chart drafted by Dae Sung Kim.

stretched into Tajikistan in the Soviet Union. In addition, a magnitude 7.0 quake that struck El Salvador in Central America on June 19 claimed 40 lives.

Person said the known death toll from earthquakes in 1982 was 3,338, about one-third fewer people than were reported killed in 1981; most of the deaths in 1981 are attributed to two strong quakes that hit Iran. On the long-term average, 10,000 earthquake-related deaths are expected each year. Notably, no earthquake-related deaths have been reported in the United States since 1975.

In 1982, the USGS received 404 reports of felt earthquakes in the United States. The strongest to occur in the continental 48 states was a magnitude 5.5 tremor that rumbled along the California-Nevada border south of Hawthorne, Nev., and southeast of Mount Lake, Calif., on September 24.

One again, Hawaii led other states with 137 felt earthquakes, followed by California with 108 and Alaska with 44. The other states reporting felt quakes and the number of reports for each were Arkansas 14; Idaho 11; Nevada 10; Maine 8; New Hampshire 7; Connecticut, New Mexico, and Washington 6 each; Vermont 5; Massachusetts and Montana 4 each; Arizona, Colorado, Georgia, Tennessee, and Texas 3 each; Alabama, New York, South Carolina, South Dakota, and Utah 2 each; and Iowa, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Carolina, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania 1 each.

Person said the USGS normally records between 6,000 and 7,000 earthquakes worldwide each year that range in magnitude from 3 to 8 or more on the Richter scale. Several million more earthquakes may occur in such remote areas that they are not detected even by the most sensitive instruments in the world-wide seismograph network.—MEG

Salton Sea Minerals

The long-held notion that precious metals, minerals, and other useful substances can be extracted from natural waters is starting to become realized at several locations of geothermal brines. In a recent study by A. Maimoni of the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory it was determined that there is a high potential for minerals recovery from the

hot brines of a 1000-MWe geothermal power station at the Salton Sea geothermal field in southern California. The study estimated that the revenue from the minerals could substantially exceed that from the power station (*Geothermics*, 11, 239-258, 1982).

According to the study, 'A 1000-MWe power plant could recover 14-31% of the U.S. demand for manganese.' In the example of lithium production, such a geothermal plant could produce 3-10 times the annual world output of lithium. Large quantities of lead and zinc could be extracted, as well as significant amounts of gold, platinum, and silver. The chemical composition of the brines is incredibly complex, however, for reasons not currently understood.

In pilot-plant studies at the Salton Sea, there have been numerous difficulties related to the precipitation of silica, corrosion, and other factors, and thus new recovery techniques will be required. The Lawrence Livermore study suggests that a chemical cementation process, in which metallic iron is used to cause precipitation of dissolved metals, may be the most economical.

In the cementation extraction technique, spent brines are processed through a metallurgical recovery system, and then the brine is re-injected. At the well head, finely divided iron is introduced into the brine to act as a nucleation source for the precipitation of sulfides and precious metals. Hydrochloric acid is added to the brines as they are passed through fluidized beds and various separation stages.

Silica control is absolutely necessary in the metal extraction process. The deposition of silica-rich scale is substantial during any equipment operation involving the brines, and indeed scale has been a major negative factor in the development of geothermal energy in the Salton Sea area. Among other examples, the Magnanox No. 1 well in the area had recorded scaling rates as high as 0.002 m/h. The scales contain much more than silica, however; a 3-month test sample, in which 3-7 times of scale were collected, contained approximately 20% copper plus a concentration of precious metals amounting to several kilograms of silver and about 0.003 kg of gold per tonne.

In the Lawrence Livermore study, scale was reduced by addition of hydrochloric acid to lower the pH to a value of about 1.5. Suspended solids in the brines could be reduced to zero, but steel corrosion rates were of concern. Corrosion rates vary with location, pH, temperature, and other factors. Testing showed that the rates of corrosion were not greatly harmful, however, ranging from a few thousandths to a few hundredths of a centimeter per year in steel pipe specimens.

The outline of a successful geothermal power and minerals recovery plant in the Salton Sea area is as follows. The plant would operate 75% of the time for a total of 6570 operating hours per year. A 90% recovery rate for the mineral values in the brines was estimated before the brines were re-injected into the ground. The power plant would yield a net power of 22 MWe/kg of brine, corresponding to a brine flow rate of 45 million kg/h. At six cents per kilowatt-hour, the power plant value would amount to \$394 million per year. The estimated recovery would involve 48 tonnes per year of SiO₂, 11 tonnes per year of NH₃, 28 tonnes per year of Si, 136 tonnes per year of Mn, 102 tonnes per year of Fe, and lesser amounts of Zn, Sb, Pb, Se, Ag, Au, and Pt. These estimates are not highly accurate, considering the variability of the brines, but they indicate a real potential.—PMB

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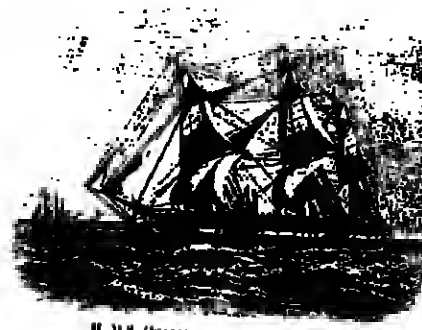
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Distribution of Elements in Sea Water

M. S. Quinby-Hunt and K. K. Turekian

The purpose of this report is to provide a basis for predicting the composition of elements at any depth or location in the world oceans. Our aim is not to assess the importance of variations in elemental concentrations but only to provide a method of estimating them. The method, however, provides no entry into the problem of estimating the effects of local releases from sediments or of human activity.

The salinity of the open ocean ranges between 33‰ and 38‰ (Dunstan, 1984) showed that despite this variation in total salt concentration the proportions of the different ions making up most of the salt content were remarkably constant. In that sense these ions are identified as being "conservative"; that is, their variation is ascribed exclusively to the addition or subtraction of pure water to a saline solution of fixed elemental proportions. The concentrations of certain trace elements also have been shown to correlate with chlorinity within analytical errors and these too can be classified as behaving conservatively.

It was early realized, by noting the distribution of high productivity regions of the ocean, that certain elements (phosphorus, nitrogen, and silicon) are not conservative; surface waters are generally depleted in these elements and deep waters have higher concentrations than overlying surface waters. These are called the "nutrient" elements. Any other element behaving in a similar way could also be so designated. The fact that the distribution of certain trace elements might resemble that of the nutrients was not easily demonstrable until a few years ago because of analytical limitations. There were, however, indications of this relationship (Schutz and Turekian, 1983a, b), and the concept was proposed as reasonable, although with no clear-cut examples, by Goldberg et al. (1971). It was finally demonstrated for Sr (Brass and Turekian, 1974) and Cd (Knauer and Martin, 1978) and has since been a well-established observation for many trace elements.

The dissolved gases have a much more complex distribution. Initially, the levels are determined by the solubility of atmospheric gases in surface water and by bubble trapping. In principle the concentration of each gaseous component could be determined by the temperature of the water in contact with the atmosphere and the measured relative abundances of the gases in the atmosphere, although corrections must be made for bubble trapping. Supersaturation can occur with heating of the water as it sinks and moves away from the site of a cold surface injection. A much more marked effect is observed for biologically processed gases which change in concentration as the result of metabolism. Thus oxygen is produced by photosynthesis in surface water and used up during net respiration at depth. Other gases similarly affected in some degree are N₂, CO₂, N₂O, H₂S, H₂ and CO.

The open ocean has been impacted by man's activities. This is clearly seen by the presence of bomb-produced nuclides such as ⁹⁰Sr, ¹³⁷Cs, ²³⁹Pu, ²⁴⁰Pu, and ²⁴¹Pu. In addition, at least one element, Pb, has been clearly shown to owe its distribution to anthropogenic inputs. The distribution of these nuclides in the ocean is controlled by supply from the atmosphere and from coastal sources, thus generally showing patterns of diminishing concentration with depth.

Fluxes of some nuclides from the ocean boundaries can significantly modify the distribution pattern of these nuclides. The most striking of these is primitive ³He degassing from the earth's interior at oceanic spreading centers (Craig and Lupton, 1981). It has been shown that ³He correlates with ³He in such areas (Watts, 1977). Manganese concentrations

are also high at shallow depths near the continental margin, indicating release from reducing sediments there (Lauding and Bruland, 1980). Copper is released from the deep ocean bottom by the degradation of carrier phases at the interface (Boyle et al., 1977).

Finally, removal processes characteristic of the ocean-bottom interface such as particle resuspension and manganese precipitation also influence the distribution patterns of the elements. This influence has been shown for ²¹⁰Pb produced from the decay of ²²⁶Ra (Craig et al., 1974; Nozaki et al., 1980) but has not yet been demonstrated for the trace nuclides in the deep sea.

All the above relationships act to determine the element composition of seawater as a function of location and depth. Aside from the elements showing strong boundary effects or those with strong anthropogenic signals, the distribution patterns for trace elements are approximated by (1) behavior as a conservative element or (2) behavior as a nutrient element. We have reviewed the literature reporting distributions of elements in seawater and the correlations they exhibit with conservative or nutrient components. We have assigned some elements to a correlation category based on the data available, although detailed profiles have not been published.

Table 1 includes the reported behavior of each element. For conservative elements, the relation to chlorinity (CL) is reported. For nutrient-related elements the correlation coefficients are given. Table 2 summarizes the best available data on the concentrations of the elements in seawater (in order of atomic number). Data have been published in a variety of units; here, concentrations of elements other than nutrients and gases are expressed as milligrams per kilogram, micrograms per kilogram, or nanograms per kilogram depending on the concentration. The nutrients and gases are given as micromoles per kilogram. In Table 2, surface or near-surface concentrations and a concentration near 1000 m in the Pacific Ocean are reported where possible. A mean ocean concentration has been calculated where possible using correlation expressions found in Table 1, a salinity of 35‰, and nitrate, phosphate, and silicate concentrations of 30, 2, and 110 μmol/kg (based on Baines, 1979a, b, c), respectively.

The concentrations of some of the members of the ²³⁸U, ²³⁵U, and ²³²Th decay chains (²³⁸U, ²³⁴Th, ²³⁰Th, ²²⁶Ra, ²²²Rn, ²¹⁰Pb, ²¹⁰Po, ²¹⁰Bi, ²¹⁰Mn, ²¹⁰At) have been extensively studied recently. In large part as a consequence of the GEOSecs program and its successors. Most of the papers dealing with the distributions of these radionuclides are published in *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, *Deep-Sea Research*, and *Journal of Geophysical Research*.

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Oceanography (cont. from p. 131)

Pacific Warm Event

A preliminary description of the 1982 equatorial warm event was published in February as a special issue of the *Tropical Ocean-Atmosphere Newsletter*. A followup special issue is planned to discuss the equatorial Pacific environment during the first 6 months of 1983.

The newsletter is published bimonthly by the University of Washington's Joint Institute for the Study of the Atmosphere and Ocean (JISAO), with support from the Equatorial Pacific Ocean Climate Studies (EPOCS) program within the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. For additional information, contact David Halpern, JISAO, University of Washington, AK-40, Seattle, WA 98195.

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Opinion

Bottom Water

I read with great interest your writeup on the 'Mysteries of Bottom Water' in the March issue of The Oceanography Report (EOS, March 1, 1983, p. 85).

I can recall the time, not so very long ago, when some very prominent physical oceanographers dismissed the notion advanced by paleo-oceanographers that the deep ocean environment is far from steady. It is nice to see them come around, some of them even to start to pay attention to what paleo-oceanographers have to say.

Detmar Schmitter
Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution
Woods Hole, Mass.

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The person obtaining the appointment would be responsible for a portion of the planning and execution of the field study, much of the subsequent data analysis and interpretation, and teaching of one graduate level course in physical oceanography each year. The successful applicant must have received the Ph.D. in physical oceanography or a closely related field by the starting date of his appointment. Preference will be given to applicants with direct experience in field observations.

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- Be recognized as an AGU member at the meeting—AGU members have special badges.

Send your check with the application below or charge it to your credit card.

MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION 1983		AMERICAN GEOPHYSICAL UNION 2000 FLORIDA AVENUE WASHINGTON, DC 20008	
Complete both sides			
REGULAR MEMBERS—Individuals who are professionally engaged in or associated with geophysics including college or university students. Students enrolled in at least a half-time program of study leading to a degree receive special reduced dues and journal subscription rates. ASSOCIATES—Individuals not professionally involved but with an interest in geophysics. Associates may not vote or hold office. Send applications together with payment for first year's dues and journals to AGU.			
PREFERRED MAILING ADDRESS			
Each line of boxes represents one line of address. Please abbreviate as necessary to fit within space provided. PLEASE PRINT ALL INFORMATION CLEARLY.			
FORE NAMES AND/OR INITIALS		LAST NAME	
FIRST LINE OF ADDRESS		10 NUMBER - OFFICE USE	
SECOND LINE OF ADDRESS (OPTIONAL)			
CITY		STATE (USA only)	ZIP CODE (USA only)
COUNTRY		FOREIGN POSTAL CODE	
TELEPHONE (Phone numbers provided will be published in the membership directory.)			
HOME	AREA CODE	NUMBER	TITLE
OFFICE	AREA CODE	NUMBER	EXT.
EMPLOYER		EMPLOYMENT	
JOB TITLE			
DEPARTMENT			
LOCATION		CITY	STATE (USA only)
		ZIP CODE (USA only)	
COUNTRY		FOREIGN POSTAL CODE	
JOB FUNCTIONS		EMPLOYER CLASSIFICATION	
Check up to 3 which best describe your areas of functional responsibility.		Check the one which best identifies your employer.	
A <input type="checkbox"/> CONSULTANT	F <input type="checkbox"/> ENGINEERING	A <input type="checkbox"/> MILITARY ACTIVE	E <input type="checkbox"/> OTHER NON-PROFIT
B <input type="checkbox"/> STUDENT	G <input type="checkbox"/> ADMINISTRATIVE-NO R&D	B <input type="checkbox"/> U.S. FEDERAL GOVT	F <input type="checkbox"/> BUSINESS OR INDUSTRY
C <input type="checkbox"/> TEACHING	H <input type="checkbox"/> ADMINISTRATIVE-NO R&D	C <input type="checkbox"/> OTHER GOVERNMENT	G <input type="checkbox"/> SELF EMPLOYED
D <input type="checkbox"/> BASIC RESEARCH	I <input type="checkbox"/> FIELD EXPLORATION	D <input type="checkbox"/> UNIVERSITY	H <input type="checkbox"/> UNEMPLOYED
E <input type="checkbox"/> APPLIED RESEARCH	J <input type="checkbox"/> RETIRED	I <input type="checkbox"/> OTHER - please specify	
M <input type="checkbox"/> OTHER - please specify			
GENERAL			
DATE OF BIRTH			
EDUCATION - Indicate level of highest degree earned.			
MONTH/YEAR		INSTITUTION AT WHICH HIGHEST DEGREE EARNED	
<input type="checkbox"/> DOCTORATE		MAJOR	
<input type="checkbox"/> MASTERS		YEAR HIGHEST DEGREE EARNED	
<input type="checkbox"/> BACHELORS			
<input type="checkbox"/> NO COLLEGE DEGREE			
SECTION AFFILIATION			
Check the sections with which you desire affiliation and indicate the single section with which you wish to be principally affiliated.			
<input type="checkbox"/> GEODESY (G)		<input type="checkbox"/> VOLCANOLOGY, GEOCHEMISTRY, &	
<input type="checkbox"/> SEISMOLOGY (S)		<input type="checkbox"/> PETROLOGY (P)	
<input type="checkbox"/> ATMOSPHERIC SCIENCES (M)		<input type="checkbox"/> HYDROLOGY (H)	
<input type="checkbox"/> GEOMAGNETISM AND		<input type="checkbox"/> TECTONOPHYSICS (T)	
<input type="checkbox"/> PALEOMAGNETISM (GP)		<input type="checkbox"/> PLANETOLOGY (P)	
<input type="checkbox"/> OCEANOGRAPHY (O)			
MAJOR SECTION AFFILIATION			
SOLAR-PLANETARY RELATIONSHIPS			
<input type="checkbox"/> AERONOMY (BA)			
<input type="checkbox"/> COSMIC RAYS (SC)			
<input type="checkbox"/> MAGNETOSPHERIC PHYSICS (SM)			
<input type="checkbox"/> SOLAR & INTERPLANETARY PHYSICS (SSI)			
Turn page for reverse of application.			

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